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ABSTRACT

This document presents the findings of a study that examined whether the marital status of women in New Brunswick (Canada) influenced their ability to obtain administrative or managerial positions within nontraditional fields. The study cited research suggesting that women are still viewed as dependent, passive, and lacking in competitiveness, ambition, and leadership. For the research, 23 companies were chosen from the telephone directory for Fredericton and Oromocto (New Brunswick). The firms were designated as either engineering, academia, or other. Targeted companies were phoned and asked about the number of women, their marital status, and their positions within management or administration. Callers informed respondents that answers would be confidential and no names would be required. The 23 companies reported a total of 87 women in administrative or managerial positions. Of those 87 over 73% were married, while less than 12 percent were single. No marital status was provided for about 14% of the women. The percentage of married women was high (94%) within the engineering field, but was only 35% within academia (although no marital status was reported for 60% of the academics). Findings dispute the hypothesis that marital status influences women's professional advancement in male dominated fields. Further study of the topic should be pursued. (SG)

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THE INFLUENCE THAT MARITAL STATUS HAS ON THE ADVANCEMENT OF PROFESSIONAL WOMEN IN NON-TRADITIONAL FIELDS

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By

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A Seminar paper presented to Atlantic Baptist College in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Bachelor of Arts in Interdisciplinary Studies

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The demand for large numbers of highly educated workers has dramatically increased over the last two decades because of the growth of professional and managerial occupations. This significant growth within both occupations and along with the enforcement of anti-discrimination laws has tremendously influenced the enhancement of women's access to traditionally male occupations.

Traditionally speaking, engineering has been a male-dominated field, however women have been earning engineering careers since 1892, and during the 1970s drastic efforts were made to recruit women into science and engineering careers (Jagacinski 1987, p. 97). Women have achieved the greatest representation in the male-dominated profession of academia in comparison with science and engineering occupations. However, throughout most of this century, they have lost ground in academia as evidenced by the lack of women occupying presidency positions within U.S. universities and colleges. Less than a decade ago, men were the only ones who held ninety-five percent presidency positions within all colleges and universities (Tinsley, et al. 1992, p. 47).

During the early 1970s, the American Council on Education (ACE) was the first and only higher education association that held a national conference relating specifically to women's issues. Recognizing the tremendous value women had within educational institutions, the ACE board of directors established both an Office of Women in Higher Education (OWHE), and a Commission of Women in Higher Education to advise it (Tinsley, et al. 1992, p. 47).

The purpose of this study is to determine whether the marital status of women in New Brunswick (NB) influences their ability to obtain administrative or managerial positions within non-traditional fields. The question for this research study is: Does the marital status of women

in NB inhibit their capability to enter into administrative or managerial positions within the non-traditional fields such as engineering and academia?

The hypothesis for this study is as follows: Single females in NB are more apt to hold administrative or managerial positions within non-traditional fields such as engineering and academia, compared to their married counterparts. The null hypothesis for this study is as follows: The marital status of women in NB does not influence their capability of obtaining administrative or managerial positions within non-traditional fields such as academia and engineering.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

One of the forces consistently shaping the outcomes in the management of human resources has been the overwhelming increase of the participation of women in the labour force. Although during the last two decades the occupational distribution of women has remained concentrated within traditionally female fields, this degree of concentration has been decreasing on a rapid scale. More women have moved into non-traditional professions that for the most part are predominantly male engineered. The shift into medical, engineering, academic, and managerial professions has allowed both the upgrading in the female intensified industries as well as entry into the male industries (Wallace, 1982, p. 2).

Shrouded misconceptions that have persisted over a century of time have limited our knowledge about the professional woman in a considerable way. While the general area of female sex roles have been given a considerable amount of attention and indepth study, sex roles that relate primarily to occupations have been largely neglected. These studies that have been done concerning professional women have only related the female role with the family subsystem, therefore intensifying this cultural bias of women, their primary role, and where they 'belong' (Wallace, 1982, p. 3).

Many problems have confounded various sociologists who have attempted to define the roles of professional women. The question remains: What occupations are considered professional? The changing nature of occupations for the primary goal of raising their status in the occupational hierarchy, makes the dynamic concept of 'professionalization' both necessary and useful in defining the role of professional women (Wallace, 1982, p. 4).

Since most professional women work at a semi-professional level below the highest

professions, the notion of 'professionalization' becomes quite useful. It makes it possible to distinguish between these two levels, and it empowers us to observe on a more significant basis the processes by which the female professional roles become structured and institutionalized in our society even as the professions themselves change (Theodore, 1971, p. 1-3).

> "The central focus of the professional role lies in its rationality, functional specialization, and universalism. The professional acquires his social identity from his profession and satisfaction from practicing it." (Theodore, 1971, p. 2)

Professional and Non-Professional Women as Mothers

The motherly roles that both professional and non-professional women must exhibit towards their children is quite interesting. A study was conducted by Mering (Theodore, 1971, pp. 569-583) on professional and non-professional women as mothers. The stated hypothesis of this research was that the professionally-active mother, because of her social attributes and roles, is expected to regard the child as a potential adult. She believes that the period of childhood is one where adult standards and patterns should be learned, thus intensifying the disciplinary and independence training functions of the parent. In contrast, the role experience of the non-professional mother, that are exclusively dealing with the maternal role, is expected to deal with the child as a unique individual, with a special personality and dependency needs appropriate to the level of his/her development. She considers the period of childhood to be a period where his/her needs should be understood and gratified. Hence, this mother, relative to the professionally-active mother, reduces both disciplinary and interdependence training characteristics, and exaggerates the empathetic, protective, and understanding qualities of a parent (Theodore, 1971, p. 569).

The findings of Theodore's research lend support to the above hypothesis. The evidence obtained strongly suggest that mothers currently identified with the maternal role are more person oriented, emphasizing protective, understanding and empathetic qualities. The

professionally-active mothers, with their partial identification with both the world of achievement and performance, are more standard oriented and emphasize both discipline and independence training qualities (Theodore, 1971, p. 579).

Barriers to Women's Work Experience

Women in Male-Dominated Occupations

(Statistical Overview)

According to Reskin (Stromberg, et al. 1988), in 1985, forty-four point one percent of the employed labour force were women and forty-nine percent were working in occupations the consensus designated as professional. Out of the 106 professional occupations given, men dominate fifty-one, while women only dominate nine of them. Moreover all but one of the twenty-three professional occupations being fifty percent female involve teaching, health, social, library and recreation work.

Within the general area of executive, managerial, and administrative jobs, thirty-five percent are women, and it does not come as a surprise that twenty-four of the twenty-six occupations are predominantly male. Most female executive and managerial occupations are among health-managers and underwriters, whereby women comprise a large majority. The male-dominated occupations of funeral directors and protective service administrators only average one woman for every ten men (Stromberg et al. 1988, pp. 190-192).

Attitudes Towards Women Managers

Given the above statistics, women are definitely concentrated in positions at the bottom of the hierarchy in typical male-dominated professions. There is no doubt that they are segregated from prestigious employment positions and put into lower-status specialties, that offer less prestige and lower salaries than those in which men are concentrated. The fact that women physicians are over-represented in paediatrics, anaesthesiology and psychiatry, and

under-represented in surgery reflects the consistent channelling of women into subspecialities that have already been pre-labelled as 'appropriate' for them to pursue. The ongoing trend reflects upon women lawyers who are only concentrated in government jobs, research and subspecialities as trust and estate, instead of litigation where they belong in the first place (Stromberg, et al. 1988, p. 191).

Reskin (Stromberg, et al. 1988), says that the barriers faced by the professional woman can come as subtle or not so subtle. The role of the male practitioner is to directly refer clients to women and to include them in informal meetings or gatherings where important interpersonal contacts are made. The opposite is occurring for various reasons. The male practitioner fails to refer clients to women and excludes them from informal meetings. In the case of non-white women, they are especially unseen to the large white male population within informal networks. Because the majority of men are white within these networks, they take membership within the settings for granted, and may be unaware that the consistent exclusion of women from these settings limits their access to professional opportunities.

In view of this long exclusion of women from male professions and the superfluous segregation into particular subspecialities and low paying settings, it is no shock or surprise that men earn more money than women in all professions. Women rarely earn as much as 75 percent of their male counterparts (Stromberg et al. 1988, pp. 193-195).

The U.S. Bureau of Census (1984) supports the following statement that:

> "Among accountants, architects, lawyers and judges, and physicians in full-time practice, women earned 50 to 60 percent of what similar men earned in 1980; among dentists, the ratio was only 40 percent." (Stromberg et al. 1988, p. 195).

A study was conducted by Murgai (1991, pp. 681-696), reviewing the current literature of attitudes towards women as managers in the field of Library and Information Science (LIS). The aim of the study was to examine if male and female LIS students (future managers) differed in

their attitudes towards the role of women as potential managers. Since adult attitudes towards gender roles had already been established, these students were selected as they provided insight into the changing attitudes of the coming generations towards management.

Although there is a dramatic increase in the percentage of women pursuing graduate degrees and aspiring to higher status within executive and professional occupations, women are still generally viewed as being dependent, passive, and lacking in competitiveness, ambition and leadership skill (Murgai, 1981, p.682). In the business context, women are viewed as being far too emotional and unfit for managerial positions. Therefore, women who seek more education and training develop selfconfidence within themselves, and demonstrate independence, ambition and a desire to perform managerial roles. When opportunities to perform these certain tasks are denied to them, the results are usually low self-esteem, low confidence and curtailed achievement level (Murgai, 1991, pp. 683-684).

The results tabulated from this personality study has indicated that the majority of male and female LIS students believed that managerial work was both important and challenging to women as it is to men. In all managerial situations, women can handle similar levels of responsibility and are just as objective, ambitious and aggressive as their male counterparts. The emotional stability of women does not influence their performance as managers any more than it does for men (Murgai, 1991, pp. 695-696).

The biggest hurdle preventing women from attaining managerial positions in LIS is the traditional attitudes of managers in relation to the feminine role. Up until this day, traditional managers do not perceive women as leaders, and this perception has not changed even though empirical studies have repeatedly shown a difference in both the expectations and attitudes of the work force. Objective evaluation of jobs, collaborative management, and studies such as these can aid traditional managers in changing their attitude towards women within the fields of

management (Murgai, 1991, pp. 694-696).

Until recently, it has been assumed and predicted that as the proportion of women managers increased, sex bias' would have decreased in a somewhat linear fashion. On the contrary, women in small numbers are not seen as a direct threat to the majority of the male population for positions within a company, but as the proportion of women increase their presence is seen as a true threat. Especially among those women who compete for and receive jobs and managerial positions that would normally have gone to men. Given the afore conditions, many stereotypes and sexist behavioral patterns are reactivated by male managers as an internal means of coping with both the fear and frustration (Wallace, 1982, pp. 91-93).

Sexual segregation for women managers and administrators have led them into particular departments within firms that are primarily concentrated in low and non-profit industries. Synonymous to professional women, managerial women seldom hold top managerial positions and do not have careers that lead them into attaining such an achievement. Stromberg (1988) says that this is unquestionably true for black female managers and administrators, who have historically been restricted to jobs within both the public sector and the black community (Stromberg, et al. 1988, pp. 200-202).

Engineering Careers: Women in Scientific Professions

Among women scientists, it has only been recently that they were able to pursue scientific careers. Formal barriers such as graduate programs' refusal to admit women or give them financial aid often excluded them from most scientific networks. These subtle barriers ensured that women who did manage to become scientists remained outsiders in marginal positions and without support from their academic institutions. In 1982, women's representation within the scientific professions was almost twice its level ten years earlier, and there was still a small percentage of only thirteen percent of employed women engineers and scientists. In 1972, six

point five percent of computer specialists were black, and in 1980 it went up by two point eight percent to reach nine point three percent, which is slightly beneath the ten point six percent black women comprise within the labour force (Stromberg, et al. 1988, p. 198).

Undoubtedly enough, male and female scientists are concentrated in different specialities and work settings, therefore sex segregation within this field is also a well-known factor. Segregation due to the very fact that women have been discouraged from studying mathematics, for the primary reason that this speciality is labelled as being male. As a result many women are underrepresented in most of our scientific fields of chemistry, physics, engineering, and agricultural and earth sciences (Stromberg, et al. 1988, pp. 195-200).

A national survey was conducted by Jagasinski (1987, pp. 97-110), comparing both the characteristics and employment experiences of men and women engineers in the field for different amounts of time. Findings reported from this survey which thoroughly examined the characteristics of women entering male-dominated fields such as engineering, showed that most women generally come from families with high educational attainment including both parents, and a high rate of maternal employment. Furthermore, these women tend to view their parents as a support system to their future career aspirations, and place much more emphasis on career-related success and less importance on marriage and family. Realistically speaking, women within male-dominated professions often suffer from feelings of isolation, sex discrimination, and a lack of support from their male colleagues (Jagacinski, 1987, pp. 97-99).

The results from the Jagacinski (1987) study recorded various differences and similarities between men and women engineers. Similarities were noted within the relative importance of factors influencing both their career decisions and job values. The differences between both genders dealt primarily with their present job status, demographic variables, and perceptions of the opportunities for their individual career advancement. The study specified the fact that the

majority of women engineers were raised up within households containing parents who were more highly educated, and more likely to be employed in professional positions, than those of men in engineering. The marital status of women engineers was also mentioned, highlighting the fact that these women were less likely to be married and more likely to be divorced or widowed, and childless, compared to their male colleagues. The spouses of women engineers were professionals than were the spouses of men engineers. Having this in mind suggests that men engineers with non-professional spouses had someone with the primary responsibility of child-rearing, while on the other hand, married women engineers more frequently face the problems of dual-career marriage. Of the calculated results from this study, there was no evidence that the type of woman entering the field of engineering is changing (Jagacinski, 1987, pp. 105-107).

Women in Academia

Despite the small representation of women in the field of engineering, the contrary is presently occurring within the field of academia. This is the non-traditional field in which women have achieved the greatest representation. Although they represent a large amount, women are simply concentrated in low ranks that lack job security. Ten years ago, in 1983, men had an advantage of thirty-seven percent over women to have tenure (Stromberg, et al. 1988, p. 195).

The academic employment of white women within the field of academia grew very slowly within the 1970s, but the pace was even much slower for black women. They actually lost ground from the academic community. This underrepresentation of both black and white women, especially black women, on college faculties is a serious consequence among black and white students, because they lack a tremendous amount of female role models (Stromberg, et al. 1988, p. 196).

Within most universities and colleges, all administrative top-campus positions are dedicated to white men. In 1981, only eight point four percent of all top-level administrators were women, and among black women holding such positions, the amount was only a mere one point one percent. Moreover, female administrators earn much less on average than do their male counterparts (Stromberg, et al. 1988, p. 196).

The average academic men's salary ten years ago exceeded women's salaries by more than $5000 (Stromberg, et al. 1988, p. 196). The factor of gender segregation takes its toll once again within this profession, as in the afore mentioned non-traditional occupations, by influencing the wage disparity between male and female faculty. It has lowered the earned educational qualifications of women and segregated them into predominantly female disciplines that hold lower academic rank than the high administrative posts. Segregation has also inhibited women's research productivity, and women are unable to publish as much as men because the positions they hold do not encourage methods of research. However, the publication differences are too minor to account for the large wage gap, especially among new doctorates. Gender segregation and discrimination factors within this profession has directly and indirectly paralyzed women from attaining higher paying positions (Stromberg, et al. 1988, pp. 195-196).

Wage discrepancies, as well as educational advancement within academia, are only two of the many barriers such professional women fall into, and such is the case with minority status women. Wyche and Graves (1992, pp. 429-437), conducted a study focusing on the limited educational advancement of minority-status women (African, Asian, Hispanic, and Native-American), within the field of psychology. The aim of this study examines ethnicity/race and gender as major components reflecting upon the professional advancement of dual-status women within this field. Previous studies on ethnicity and race rarely focused on the combination of ethnicity/race and gender, therefore knowledge about their effects on the exercise

of power in professional organizations is lacking.

The results from Wyche and Graves (1992) study concluded that women's educational participation decreases as the level of professional status increases. Although there is a fairly large representation of women psychologists, most are not likely to attain positions among the faculty of various colleges, on editorial boards, or in other positions of power within the field of psychology. Therefore, women who are among racial/ethnic groups are even less likely to be represented in these areas. Such women are underrepresented at the various levels of educational attainment, professional ranking, and high-status positions (Wyche, et al. 1992, pp. 436-437).

The main barrier influencing women's educational advancement within the field of psychology includes that of economic pressures. These economic hardships persist when women receive much lower wages and are hired at lower levels of power and prestige than their male counterparts. The barriers that were producing these economic processes associated with the levels of decreased power, particularly among minority women must be overcome. Wyche's (1992) study refers to the importance of the breakdown of such stereotypical barriers, produced by those in higher positions of power. If breakdown does occur, this would promote inclusion of all women with their diverse backgrounds in their mentoring, hiring, and professional academic advancement (Wyche, et al. 1992, p. 437).

The Doubly Disadvantaged: The Black Professional Woman

Professional occupations have played an important role in the occupational aspirations of blacks. Although there have been various studies done on the recent advances in occupational status among blacks, these studies have only concentrated data focusing on males; with the assumption that research on racial comparisons relating to men would provide adequate meaning.

Factors such as discrimination at the lower levels of work, the lack of business know-how, and a

generally poor history of black-owned businesses have helped produce an occupational mobility pattern among blacks that is different and misunderstood by whites (Theodore, 1971, pp. 119-121).

Between the two genders of blacks, the impact of the larger discriminating environment has created an even larger impact on male and female roles. Black history has carried along with it the 'unnatural superiority' of black women:

> "In comparison with black males, females belong to a higher class, as measured by education, acculturation, income and familiarity with the white world. It has been suggested that more contacts with the dominant society have been available to black women because they have been less feared sexually, and less threatened occupationally." (Theodore, 1971, pp. 120-121)

This 'unnatural superiority' among black women has also been a relative factor towards the black family. Although all black parents have high expectations and aspirations for their children, many have painted clearer pictures of occupational aspirations for their daughters than for their sons. There is much more assurance that the aspirations attained for their daughters would be met than those of their sons. With this in mind, many black parents have been more willing to sacrifice for the education of their daughters than for their sons (Theodore, 1971, pp. 120-121).

In comparison with black males, black females have a much greater chance of entering into and remaining within professional occupations. Although the two characteristics of sex and colour may hinder a woman's entry into the professions, this differential opportunity is primarily expected because of the unnatural superior population of black women (Theodore, 1971, p. 124).

In contrast with white women, black women whether married or not are more likely to work. This is so because, once married, most black women realize that their employment is intimately related to the low income of their husbands, and need to work harder in order to increase the family income to a level comparable to that of white families. The income and

employment of black women often induce strain on marital and family relations, mostly when their income and occupational positions come relatively close to those of their husband's, who perceive this increase of status and income as a threat to their masculinity (Theodore, 1971, pp. 125,128).

In order to intensify the educational and occupational status of black women, there have been many proposals that black female oriented-training programs be recruited. The success of black females would act as a role model to others, and they would be contributing towards an improvement in the occupational status of blacks in general. Even though their success may be in relatively low-paying semi-professions, this would encourage their offspring to seek for higher levels of professional occupations (Theodore, 1971, pp. 121-131).

Recent studies such as the one conducted by Higginbotham and Weber, (Higginbotham, et al. 1992, pp. 416-440), show a tremendous increase in the levels of professional and managerial positions held among black and white females. The experiences of these women certainly paints a different picture from the image of their mobility process some twenty years ago. This study had designated to explore the processes of upward social mobility of 200 black and white professional, managerial, and administrative women of the baby boom generation (25-40 years of age) from the Memphis, Tennessee area. It examined the differences between women from working and middle-class backgrounds in other words, women who have attained positions of upward mobility and middle-class stability. Many common experiences in the attainment process are shared by women of the same race be they upwardly mobile, or stable middle-class. Upward mobility is referred to as being a process that requires sustained effort associated with emotional, cognitive as well as financial support (Higginbotham, et al. 1992, p. 473).

The results and findings of Higginbotham et al. study (1992) suggest that first and foremost these women are not detached, isolated, or driven solely by career goals. The influence

of family relationships, friends, children and the wider community plays a valuable role in the way they envision and accomplish themselves as professional and managerial women. Education was stressed as important in both families of black and white women, but differed in how much it was desired and in the way it was viewed. Upwardly mobile black and white women experienced and shared similar obstacles to attainment, but among the more mobile women, it was directly opposite. These women's parents never expected them to achieve a college education, therefore, less financial and emotional support for college attendance came from these families as opposed to those in middle-class families. The most dramatic differences between the two races came with the messages they received from their families about how they should live their lives as adults. Black women clearly received the message that to succeed in life occupation should be their first priority, while marriage should be their second. Many black women also expressed that their mobility was not an individual journey, but an entire racial uplift process.

The Higgingbotham (1992, pp. 421-437) study found that white upwardly mobile women had been given a less clear message. Within most of their families, parents stressed the need for an occupation to succeed, but twenty percent said that marriage was stressed as their primary goal in life. The most common message was suggesting that having a good occupational foundation was necessary, because you could not always count on marriage to provide economic survival. In contrast to white women, black women felt in debt to their families for the support they received, while white upwardly mobile women were less likely to feel in debt to their families and believe they accomplished it alone.

Role Reward and Stress in Managerial and Professional Women

Poole (1992, pp. 851-854) conducted a study to examine the differences in the role rewards and stress experienced by managerial and professional women. They found that the multiple

roles of working women induced stress, and compared to their male counterparts, women managers were subjected to more pressures at work and at home. Role strain, role conflict, and role overload were identified as more stressful for women who balance both career and family responsibilities, as they attempt to meet the demands of the multiple roles.

The hypothesis in Poole's study was that managerial women would experience more stress as they could be thought to have greater responsibility in the workplace, than women in professional jobs who do not have subordinates reporting to them directly. The results obtained from this study of 163 managerial and professional women, reveal that within a multiple role context, the satisfaction (sense of reward) with the 'work role' ranked higher than the roles of spouse, parent or home-maker. In other words, despite the stress factor associated with multiple roles, women working outside the home reported higher satisfaction pertaining to their working roles than with any other role.

Christian Conceptual Base of Study

Scripturally speaking, the visible church must have organization and leadership. Christ, through the Holy Spirit, provides the church with leaders: apostles, prophets, evangelists, pastors, and teachers. These have for their ministry the perfecting of the saints, which is to encourage believers, strengthen them, and equip them for the purpose of conforming them to the image of Christ.

Ephesians 4:11 (LBV), supports the above truth:

> " Some of us have been given special ability as apostles; to others he has given the gift of being able to preach well; some have special ability in winning people to Christ, helping them to trust him as their saviour, still others have a gift for caring for God's people as a shepherd does his sheep, leading and teaching them in the ways of God."

In this context (Ephesians 4:11), although the word of God does not directly relate to any specific professional occupation, it does relate to the various roles within the church. The role of

humankind is to teach and lead people to the Kingdom of God. He chooses neither gender nor race to be His representatives, and are all part of His family and because of this fact, men and women of all ages have the multiple roles that are chosen by Him.....we are all His instruments. God does not concern himself with individuals' professions, or jobs, He is concerned with how individuals bring honour and glory to His name.

In His word, God is not presented as a discriminating God. Indeed John 3:16 states that it was God's love for the whole world that caused Him to give His only begotten son to die for the sins of humankind. God does not discriminate against gender, or race. His forgiveness is there for all and in His eyes there is no hierarchy of social status. The rich man can come to Him for forgiveness as well as the poor, and the woman can come to Him as well as the man. Therefore, He does not see any physical and social difference between those who come to seek Him. The only form of discrimination is a result of the thinking patterns and actions of humankind...this is not of God.

The above discussion relates to Christian women working amongst Christian colleagues, as opposed to non-Christian women in a secular professional environment. In the former case, for a man to discriminate against a woman solely because of her gender would be considered self-centered, prideful, and unrighteous. This would not reflect an upright Christian walk.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

Research Methods and Procedure

Sample

A sample of twenty-three companies were chosen from the Fredericton/Oromocto telephone directory (December, 1992). The main goal in the selection procedure was to specifically categorize each institution as either "Engineering", "Academia", or "Other" companies, with the projection in mind that these particular institutions would be male-dominated. Ten companies were chosen and categorized as "Engineering", five were placed in the "Academia" category and eight were identified as "Other". The information hoped to be attained from these companies was the number of married or single professional women working there and their career positions.

Procedure

A telephone survey was conducted on February 25th, 1993 between the hours of 2:30 pm and 5:00 pm. Targeted companies were phoned and respondents were asked to indicate the number of women, their marital status and their positions within the divisions of management or administration. The conversation began as follows: "Hello, I am a university student and I would like to conduct a survey with you... How many women hold administrative or managerial positions within your company and what would their marital status be?". The respondents were assured that the information given would be totally confidential and no names would be required. Participation within the survey was optional.

Analysis of Data

Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data in this study. Specifically, percentage and frequency counts. The percentages were tabulated for the fraction of women (married and unmarried) in the three categories of Engineering, Academia, and Other. Frequency counts or histograms were used to present the percentage data in a more visual and graphical format.

Definition of Terms

Upward mobility is referred to as being a process that requires sustained effort associated with emotional, cognitive as well as financial support. **Male -Dominated Professions** are professions where there is a higher percentage of male employees than female employees. **Non-traditional careers** are considered to be those within typically male-dominated professions. The **single woman** is considered to be unmarried, divorced or widowed. **Common-law marriage** is defined as a marriage relationship created by agreement and usually cohabitation between a man and a woman without ecclesiastical or civil ceremony. **Academia** is considered to be higher or advanced education.

Assumptions

A general assumption is that most or all of the professional women within the survey are white, therefore statistics and data on minority status women is limited for general comparison. A second assumption was that within each company, the majority of professional positions were held by men. Thirdly, it is assumed that within each company represented, the percentage of married women compared to unmarried women will signify whether marital status influences professional advancement. Specifically, a percentage greater than seventy percent will indicate whether single women are more apt to advance than married women or vice versa.

Limitations

Firstly, time constraints have not allowed for an adequate and thorough study to be completed. A second limitation is that generalization of the results obtained are only limited to the province of New Brunswick. Thirdly, there is not enough literature pertaining to administrative or managerial positions held by women in non-traditional fields within NB to allow for a direct comparison with the results obtained in this study. Fourthly, the accuracy of the respondents answers to the survey questions may be unreliable. A fifth limitation is that the total number of women and men in the companies selected were not investigated and therefore, it was not possible to identify the number of married or single women as a percentage of the total company population. Another factor to consider is that the ethnicity or race of professional women in the survey was not obtained to allow a minority group to be defined. Some companies only participated partially in the survey, in that the number of professional women were given, but not their marital status.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The results obtained in the telephone survey are presented in Table 1. This table shows the various companies surveyed, the number of women holding administrative or managerial positions, their marital status, and their job titles. Note that, it is not known from the information given which women held which position within a given company.

Table 1. Marital Status of Women in Managerial and Administrative positions.

LIST	NO. OF WOMEN	MARITAL STATUS	POSITION
(A) ENGINEERING COMPANIES NB Society of Certified Engineering Technicians and Technologists	1	Married	Administration: Administrative Assistant
NB Power	2	Married	Managerial: Office Management Administration: District Engineer
Northern Telecom (Canada) Limited	3	2 Married 1 Single	Specialist, Executive Secretary, Technical Assistant (Single woman)
Northeast Energy Services Limited	3	Married	Administration: Administrator, Supervisor, Project Manager
Nova Electric Limited	1	Married	Managerial: Electrical Manager
Fenco Shawinigan Engineering (1991) Limited	2	Married	Adiministation: Engineering Director, Secretary
Architect's Design Group Incorporated	1	Married	Administration: Architectual Technician
Digital Equipment of Canada Limited	1	Married	Administration: Administrative Manager
Westing House Canada Incorporated	1	Married	Administration: Administrative Manager
Key Construction Limited	1	Married	Managerial: Office Manager
(B) ACADEMIA University of NB	11	Not given	Administration (Academics): Dean of Nursing, Dean of Residence, Dean of Graduate School, Director of English Language Program, Assistant Deans (4), Chairpersons (3)
Saint Thomas University	3	2 Married 1 Single	Administration: Admissions Officer, High School Relations Officer, Human Resources Officer

(table 1 continued)

LIST	NO. OF WOMEN	MARITAL STATUS	POSITION
Atlantic Baptist College	1	Married	Administration: Director of Academics
Universite De Moncton	2	1 Married 1 Unknown	Administration: Director of Academics
Mount Allison University	3	Married	Administration: Vice-President, Head of Continued Education, Controller of Financial Department
(C) OTHER CNFB Radio Atlantic	3	Married	Administration: Accountant, Traffic Manager, Receptionist
CHI/KHJ Radio	5	3 Married 2 single	Managerial: 2 Traffic Managers Administration: Administration Director, Accountant, Secretary
CBC-RADIO/TV	4	2 Married 2 Single	Managerial: Financial Director, Switch Board Receptionist, Clerk, Human Resources Officer
CHSJ/MITV	4	3 Married 1 Common Law	Managerial: Business Manager, Computer Operator, Promotion Manager, Assistant News Director
Prudential Assurance Company Limited	3	Married	Administration: Office Administrators
Fredericton Medical Clinic	15	Married	Managerial: Office Managers
Forest Hill Rehabilitation Centre	11	7 Married 4 Single	Managerial: Department Directors
Dr. Everett Chalmer's Hospital (Nursing Department)	6	Married	Managerial: Recruitment Officer, Compensations and Benefits Officer, Facility Manager, Director Quality Manager, Risk Manager, Executive Secretary

The data from Table 1 is presented to show the percentages of married and non-married women within the categories of Engineering, Academia and Other. These results are presented within Table 2 below. The number of women within each category of Engineering, Academia and Other is obtained by totalling the number of women (married and unmarried) within each respective category for each company surveyed. Note that, Table 1 shows the assignment of each company to one of the three categories. The percentage of married women within each

category is obtained by dividing the number of married women within each respective category by the total number of women within that category. The same procedure is done to calculate the percentage of single and common law women within each category. The total number of women in the survey is a sum of the number of women within each category. An overall percentage of married, single and common law women for the whole survey is tabulated under the column labelled total women in survey (see Table 2). The results for the overall percentage of married women is obtained by dividing the total number of married women in each category by the total number of women in the survey. The same method is used to find the overall percentage of single and common-law women represented in the survey.

Table 2. The percentages of married and non-married women within the categories of Engineering, Academia and Other.

	ENGINEERING	ACADEMIA	OTHER	TOTAL WOMEN IN SURVEY
NUMBER OF WOMEN	16	20	51	87
PERCENTAGE MARRIED	93.8%	35%	82.3%	73.6%
PERCENTAGE SINGLE	6.2%	5%	15.7%	11.5%
PERCENTAGE COMMON LAW	0%	0%	2%	1.1%
PERCENTAGE NOT GIVEN	0%	60%	0%	13.8%

The results in Table 2 are more graphically represented in a Bargraph format as shown in Figure 1.

FIGURE TO SHOW THE PERCENTAGES OF MARRIED AND NON-MARRIED WOMEN WITHIN THE CATEGORIES OF ENGINEERING, ACADEMIA AND OTHER

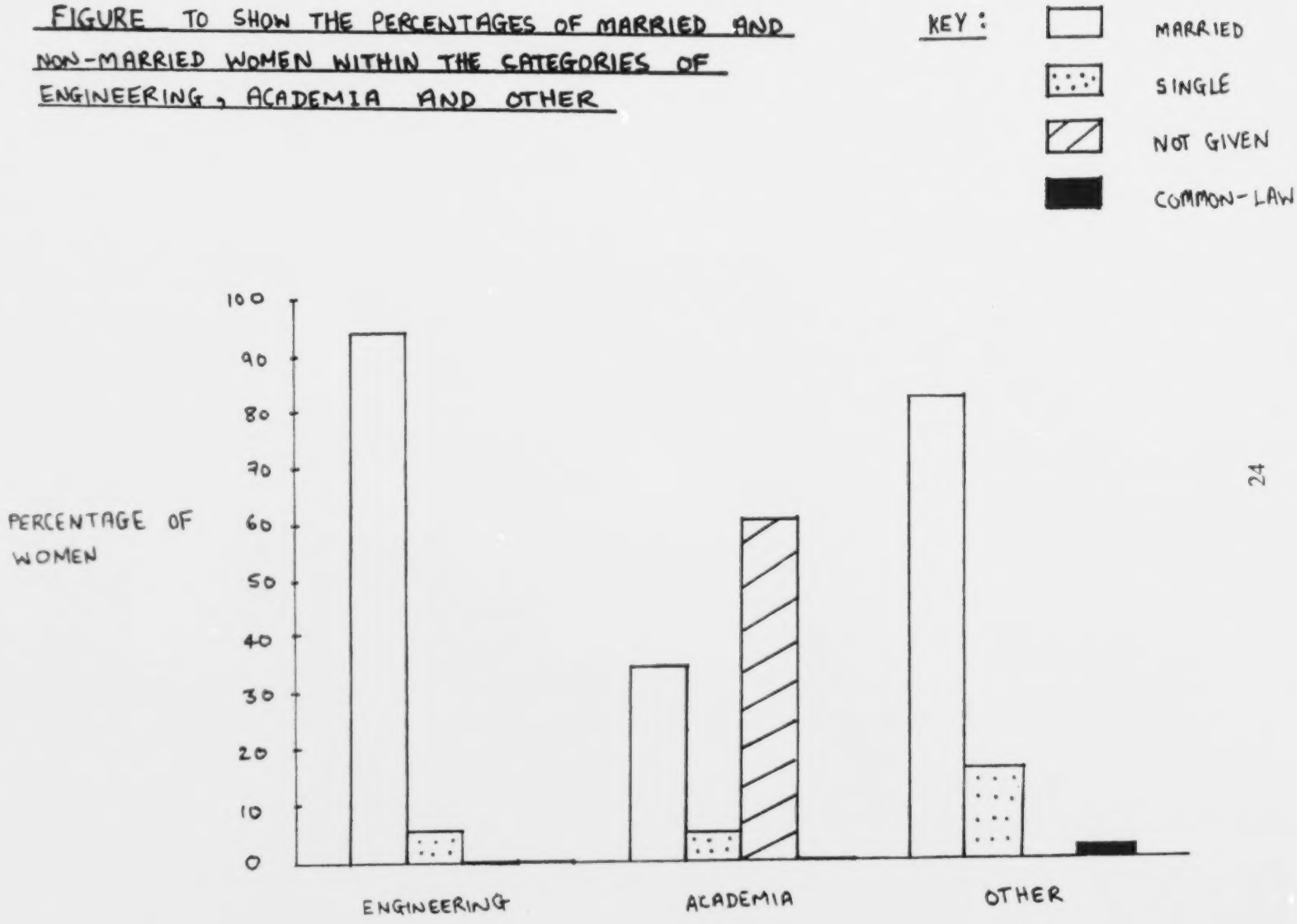

FIGURE 1.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Discussion of Results

The given results show that the percentage of married women represented in each category is much higher than the percentages of single women. Also, the overall percentage of married women, seventy three point six percent, is much higher than the overall percentage of single women, being eleven point five percent. Within the categories of Academia and Engineering, the percentages of single women were quite comparable to each other. The overall percentage of common law women were relatively insignificant as they only represented a mere one point one percent of the total number of women in the survey. It is interesting to note that overall, thirteen point eight percent of the results had not been given. However, even if this had represented single or common law women, it would not change the fact that married women still represented the majority of the positions overall.

One major reason comes to mind why married women in New Brunswick are more apt to advance in non-traditional professions than single women. From the individual companies' point of view, married women are more stable assets to have compared to single women. Specifically, single women may get married and decide to relocate and leave the company in which case their positions would need to be refilled. On the other hand, married women are more likely to be settled and at fixed positions within individual companies, where there is most likely no threat of resignation because of a change in marital status. In this case, reverse discrimination against single women is occurring. It is a possibility that companies in New Brunswick are promoting married women for this primary reason. It is also a possibility that married women are more ambitious and driven than single women in trying to make up or compensate for their multiple roles in the home and in the workplace.

There was one university within the category of Academia which withheld information pertaining to the marital status of the women represented. The University of New Brunswick may have had several reasons for withholding this information. One reason however may be speculated in that, Affirmative Action Laws may be strictly reinforced in revealing such data. Most likely to them, it was considered totally confidential and personal.

Conclusions

These results reject the hypothesis that marital status influences the professional advancement of women in New Brunswick within male-dominated fields. The results suggest that the null hypothesis should be accepted. This is because there are seventy three point six percent of women married, and the assumption was made that a percentage of greater than seventy percent was significant.

Implications

One possible implication from the results obtained is that married women are more ambitious, driven and seek higher aspirations in their career goals in comparison with single women. Another factor is that women within the three categories place marriage first and career second, this is seen by the lack of single professional women within each category. This finding is in contrast with the findings of Jagasinski (1987) who conducted a national survey of women and men engineers within the United States. It was reported that women engineers were less likely to be married and more likely to be single. Therefore, an implication of Jagasinski's result is that, in engineering, if women are going to advance professionally they need to place marriage second and career first.

Recommendations

A recommendation for a more accurate and detailed study would be to carry out a study on a much larger sample of women in non-traditional fields, within various geographical locations.

Another recommendation is to conduct a letter survey instead of a telephone one. The results may be more accurate because the respondents would have more time to tabulate their thoughts through a written letter than with direct verbal communication. A third recommendation would be to investigate and obtain information on the total number of men and women within the chosen companies, so as to calculate a true reflection of women's roles within particular institutions. Another recommendation to consider, is to specifically seek out ethnic/racial groups within different geographical locations so as to investigate the professional role of doubly disadvantaged women.

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